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ABSTRACT

The number of women occupying managerial positions in the U.S. is relatively small, but it rose 47% from 1,321,000 in 1970 to 1,942,000 in 1976. Circumstances contributing to this rise are enforcement of legal sanctions against discrimination and women's increased educational attainment. This report describes a continuing education workshop series that was developed through a literature review and interview survey to ascertain opinions, trends, and experiences related to the managerial woman's educational needs. Three themes emerged: (1) women at three management levels (executive secretaries/administrative assistants, supervisors, and middle management) have defined educational needs; (2) formal management education courses for women should be the same as those for men; and (3) special educational programs are needed to respond to personal concerns of women in management. Two workshop series dealing with innovative topics were developed. The first series, workshops for men and women managers, deals with the following topics: male stereotypes about and biases toward women managers, comparison of men and women managers' abilities and characteristics, a decision-making method, conflict management, and change strategies. The second series for women only addresses problems of women managers. Workshop topics include assertiveness training, men and women's career concept differences, power, collusion, intimacy-sexuality, support, career planning, professionalism, and communication skills. (Author/CSS)

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Training Women in Management: A Continuing Education Workshop Approach

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The Pennsylvania State University

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PREFACE

This study to identify the educational needs of women in management was prompted by the interest of The McKeesport Campus of The Pennsylvania State University and the consortium of local colleges and universities in the Pittsburgh area to provide the Triangle Corner Ltd. with a set of meaningful educational programs that could be made available to the organization's 10,000 members. Because of this geographic focus, the immediate goal of the study was identification of the management education needs of women employed in the greater Pittsburgh area, with the expectation that the findings also would be useful to women employed in other areas.

The interest of the McKeesport Campus in the management education needs of women is not new. Wesley Hakanen, assistant director for Continuing Education there, has for some time maintained an active liaison with Triangle Corner Ltd. A number of programs dealing with various aspects of women in management have been offered under both his direction and that of David Ambruster of the College of Business Administration of The Pennsylvania State University.

Samuel S. Dubin

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* Triangle Corner Ltd. is a women's organization located in Kaufmans' Department Store in Pittsburgh. The organization was established in 1968 to provide a convenient place for business and professional women to pursue and further their training and education. A major purpose of the organization is to identify educational programs which can be offered to its membership.

INTRODUCTION

The number of women occupying managerial positions today is comparatively small, but is gradually increasing. The number of women employed in management and administrative jobs in the United States rose from 1,321,000 in 1970 to 1,942,000 in 1976, a 45 percent increase in six years. Similarly, the number of women in professional and technical areas rose 33 percent, from 4,298,000 to 5,603,000 during the same period (Employment and Training Report of The President, 1977). However, only 2.3 percent of American executives earning $25,000 a year or more are women.

Women today are rigorously demanding and obtaining equal opportunities. Among conditions and circumstances contributing to the rising proportion of women in management are the enforcement of legal sanctions against discrimination and increased educational attainment by women. Furthermore, greater sexual and social freedoms are slowly resulting in a reduction of different expectations, standards, and norms for men and women and attitudes toward women as colleagues are becoming more favorable (Hellriegel and Slocum, 1974).

Evidence of the growing number of women interested in management is found in the number of women in graduate schools of business administration in the United States. That number has increased significantly. In 1972, the average number of women in graduate schools of business administration was about 5 percent of the total enrollment. By 1977, women comprised almost one-fourth of the total enrollment. These figures, coupled with the increase in the number of women employed as managers and administrators since 1970, suggest that dramatic changes in management will occur during the next decade.

This study was designed to review the pertinent literature and to ascertain opinions, trends, and experiences related to the educational needs of women in management, and to develop a series of workshops based on the findings. Telephone interviews with both men and women employed by twelve companies in the Pittsburgh area, and with other individuals suggested by them, provided substantial input. Because of the small sample size, no attempt was made to generate statistically significant data; the sample was limited to those respondents suggested by Triangle Corner Ltd. because of a desire to obtain input from the group that had initially requested the study.

Three central themes emerged from the open ended interviews that were conducted. First, there appear to be women with educational needs at three levels of management: (1) executive secretaries and administrative assistants who wish to enter management, (2) women currently employed as supervisors, and (3) women in middle management. Each level requires a different set of educational programs, although some overlapping exists.

Second, formal management education courses for women should be the same as those for men. The consensus of those interviewed was that the basic subjects of management are equally necessary for men and women. Educational requirements for specific jobs should be identical for members of both sexes.

Third, respondents identified a number of personal problems and concerns encountered by women in management. Among these were lack of assertiveness, difficulty in dealing with conflict and confrontation, the need to develop professional attitudes, and difficulty in dealing with the stresses and pressures of the job.

An informal survey on management training programs was also conducted as part of this study. Respondents were asked what training programs were

available to them. Responses indicated that few organizations offer management training for women who are currently employed as managers. Comparatively few women occupy middle management and supervisory positions, and where they do, little training is offered to them on either management subjects or the personal issues and problems identified in this report.

Most respondents believed that if the qualifications and credentials are the same for men and women managers when they are hired, that both men and women should participate in the same type of formal management training programs. In addition, respondents indicated a need for women to have some preparation beyond the formal management training. Respondents indicated that:

Women are facing a dramatically changing role.

Women have traditionally been denied the opportunities afforded their male counterparts in management education.

Women need to share problems candidly with women who have had similar experiences.

Women, who often feel quite isolated, need the support and encouragement of other women like themselves.

Women need the fresh viewpoint of women in similar positions in other organizations.

Women need to develop competencies to deal with issues encountered in their work for which they have had no previous training and exposure.

Women need a better understanding of career development and strategies for achieving their goals.

Women need to learn assertive styles of behavior to cope in competitive situations.

MANAGEMENT WORKSHOPS

This report is devoted primarily to the development of group workshops dealing with innovative topics not covered in the usual management development program. It is not intended to present an all-inclusive set of workshop topics for women in management. Opinions and attitudes expressed by those interviewed for the study will be referred to only when they are relevant to the workshop topics.

The workshops are presented in two series. One series is designed for active participation by both men and women managers; the other is for women managers only. This approach has been chosen because it meets the goals of the study; there is no uniform opinion in the literature concerning how such workshops should be organized and who should participate in them. For example, Kanter states that workshops dealing with human relations issues are

> . . . particularly suited for helping men develop new behavioral repertoires and self-insights counterbalancing the stereotypical tendencies of the male role. Where the male role stresses instrumental leadership, a task and power orientation, a humanistic approach emphasizes the expansion of feelings; . . . . But the very norms that offer new learning for men are already a stereotypical part of the female role: expressive leadership, nurturance, and support; emotional reasoning, talking immediately and directly to one another; intuition; cooperation (1977, p.381).

Kanter concludes that men and women need <u>different</u> learning experiences. She believes women need to learn how to handle power, how to address large groups comfortably and articulately, and how to behave impersonally, particularly when criticized.

Reif, Newstrom, and Monczka (1975, pp.77-78) state that their research indicates that most women managers are competent and secure in their jobs.

They argue that women's attitudes do not need to be changed. They believe that attitude changes are needed by males who do not believe women are capable of management roles and recommend that special training programs be designed for them.

Sargent (1977, pp.148-55) notes that some women believe that workshops dealing with women's issues should be restricted to women only. Sargent, however, does not adopt a single-sex approach for her book. Instead, she argues that large numbers of men and women need to be aware of the advantages and limitations of sex roles so that personal, interpersonal, and social change will occur.

This report attempts to address the needs of both men and women, providing opportunities not only for men and women to work together, but also for women to work on selected topics by themselves.

The material for each workshop is divided into two phases, background information and a suggested procedure or strategy for conducting it. One of the major goals of the workshops is to make it possible for the participating managers to share their experiences with others concerning a wide variety of issues. Ideally, the workshops should broaden participants' thinking from a personal level to a societal level. Changes in attitudes and actions could be considered and adopted where appropriate.

Each workshop can be scheduled for either one or two days, allowing for discussion and exchange of ideas as time permits. Some discussion is essential if workshop goals are to be reached. If only a quick overview or brief orientation is desired, the topic can be condensed into a one- or two-hour presentation. Sargent's book, Beyond Sex Roles, has a variety of methods, techniques, life planning exercises, and readings that can be very helpful to the instructor conducting such workshops.

This study has also identified key technical managerial behavior subject areas which can be used by workshop directors as a basis for their program development. These findings are presented in Appendix A.

Appendix B includes workshop programs for women employed at four levels of management: secretaries, executive secretaries and administrative assistants, first-line supervisors and women new to management, and women in middle management.

Workshops for Men and Women Managers

This section consists of six workshop topics, including several which were proposed by the subjects interviewed. They deal with problems and issues which require participation by both men and women managers if the desired attitude and behavior changes are to be achieved.

Male Stereotypes About Women Managers

Background

Occupational role stereotypes play a large part in determining the kinds of jobs assigned to men and women. For example, the female attributes are generally described as "passive," "dependent," "submissive," "independent," "dominant," and "willing to take risks." As jobs or occupations become associated with either men or women, a particular job or occupation soon acquires the attributes of whichever sex is associated with the position. The occupational stereotyping phenomenon is crucial in explaining why women are less likely to be in higher level positions. The prerequisities believed necessary for success in higher level positions are attributed to men.

Some of the researchers who have studied these patterns empirically assert that many organizational decision makers believe women managers as a group are different from their male counterparts in ways that affect job performance. This provides a rationale for excluding women from managerial positions largely on the basis of a variety of stereotypical assumptions about them (Reif, et al., 1975, p.72).

Some of these stereotypical assumptions are:

> Women are more emotional than men and lose their self-control in stress situations.
>
> Women are uncomfortable when outnumbered by men and their presence makes men uneasy.
>
> Women work for short term goals and never develop the ambition, aggressiveness, and dedication needed to succeed in business.
>
> Women are absent more often than men.
>
> Women are not analytical and do not understand business statistics.

> Women like repetitive routine tasks in a job and do not seek challenge in their work.
>
> Women are passive and dependent.

Another common notion about women at work is that they put their family obligations first and their job second. Some frequently expressed beliefs are:

> Women will get married and leave the organization, so why invest a lot of valuable time training them?
>
> Women will not work while their children are young.
>
> Women are not geographically transferable and should not be placed in positions of responsibility that require travel.
>
> A woman should not aspire to achieve more than her male counterpart, and particularly not more than her husband (Orth and Jacobs, 1971, p.141).

Such notions about women often are evident when male recruiters interview potential female employees. Male recruiters reveal stereotypical attitudes in such questions as: "Do you intend to get married?"; "When do you think you will start a family?"; "You don't think you want to travel?," etc.

Additionally, persons interviewed for this study believed that some male managers resent competition from women and therefore are openly hostile to them. Several respondents expressed the opinion that male managers do not believe organizations have any special obligation to women managers. Instead, women are expected to change to comply with organizational expectations. An opinion expressed frequently was that older male managers tend to adhere to the traditional concepts of female roles. They perceive a woman's role as that of housekeeper, mother, secretary, or receptionist rather than as co-worker. These men do not take women seriously, listen to them, give them credit for offering a

good idea, allow them independence in their work, or trust them to use good judgment. They also treat women paternalistically.

Others who have studied these issues try to show that the stereotypes previously discussed no longer accurately reflect the contemporary American woman.

Reif et al. (1975, p.77) report studies suggesting that men and women managers' views about organizations are more similar than dissimilar. They found no differences that would prevent women from performing well as managers.

Further research supports their conclusions. A study done by Crowley, Levitin, and Quinn (1973) revealed that while women are more concerned about pleasant working surroundings than men, both men and women recognized the importance of having competent supervisors instead of incompetent but "nice" ones. They found that men and women were equally dissatisfied with dull jobs and equally ambitious for opportunities for advancement.

The data also indicated that two-fifths of the working women in the U.S. are economically independent of men. Hence they are not working for "pin money." Additionally, the majority of working women sampled (57 percent) said they would continue working even if they were given enough money to live comfortably without working. Their jobs provided these women with a sense of identity and self-satisfaction they did not want to lose (Crowley, et al., 1973, pp.94-96).

Lirtzman and Wahba (1973) concluded in their studies that women can and will act competitively in managerial roles.

Differences researchers found between men and women managers were subtle. Reif et al. (1975) found that women valued interpersonal

relationships more than men and had more positive views about being able to satisfy their needs within the organization. Schein's (1973, pp.55-100) study on sex role stereotypes in management found that women managers are often more considerate, understanding, helpful, and intuitive than male managers. Schein suggests that organizations should make good use of these differences by placing women in management situations where such characteristics are desirable.

Perhaps the strongest argument against maintaining the old stereotypes about women in management is presented by Tavris (1977, pp.178-187). She argues that such stereotypes are harmful to women because they justify putting women in low paying, low status jobs. Furthermore, she says, they can cause psychological problems for women by suggesting that qualities like ambition, assertiveness, and competitiveness are not feminine characteristics and therefore not an appropriate part of a woman's self-image.

Tavris believes that society will become healthier by moving toward a middle ground on the question of personality differences between men and women. She believes a change in attitudes about women is essential because the application of outmoded stereotypes to women in disregard of their personal qualifications is not only unfair, but also discriminatory.

Suggested Strategy

This workshop should be attended by both men and women in management to allow for their exchange of attitudes, feelings, and biases.

The stereotypes outlined earlier, along with any others considered to be relevant, should be presented to the participants. After this initial presentation, groups can be formed to discuss specific stereotypes.

Each group leader should be prepared to provide data from recent research and writings to lend objectivity to the discussions and to dispel the stereotypes where applicable.

Role playing, simulations, and management games may be used as individual and group exercises.

Biased Male Behaviors Towards Women

Background

This workshop describes a number of male biases that women encounter in their work relationships. It is not assumed that these biases are universal.

Many men express some degree of skepticism about women's abilities in management because they believe that they lack the skills necessary to succeed within an organization. Terborg (1977, pp.647-664) explains that the existence of a "male managerial model" further strengthens societal norms and myths that women should not or cannot be successful in management.

Women face traditional prejudices and cultural biases that limit their potential contribution and role. Gordon and Stroeber (1975) explain that such biases have adverse impacts on women at work. They affect job assignments and reduce women's opportunities for advancement and promotion. These biases can be harmful to the organization by lowering performance expectations. This reduces potential job output and also results in low salaries for women.

Cultural biases cause additional problems for women in management. They justify the exclusion of women from the informal socialization systems that often exist among male managers. The exclusion of women from these informal male groups makes them feel isolated.

One woman respondent in this study expressed the opinion that is is difficult to break into male groups or to develop dialogues or interpersonal relationships with men on a friendly basis. She felt that men tend to get informal support from their superiors and are not criticized for their mistakes as frequently as women are.

A number of other respondents felt that women have to prove their superior competence before men begin to trust them. They asserted that it is difficult for women to get recognition for their work and for them to express their readiness for advancement to supervisors.

Another problem women in management experience is attempts by some male managers to intimidate them at staff meetings when differences of opinion occur. If a woman takes a strong position on a controversial point, some men react by becoming critical, demeaning, and sarcastic. Alternatively, women's comments at staff meetings are frequently overlooked, interrupted, or even unheard because some men are not accustomed to paying attention to what women say.

How do women react in these situations? One respondent in this study felt that women tend to reveal their feelings too easily, become emotional when confronted, and have difficulty controlling their feelings. Women experiencing these difficulties need to learn to mask their feelings and to understand that detachment is more often beneficial to their goals.

In a lengthy study entitled The Psychology of Sex Differences, Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) conclude that self-confidence is one achievement-related characteristic that consistently differentiates the sexes. They found that performance expectations and self-evaluation of abilities are lower among women than men and that they tend to become self-fulfilling prophecies.

Strategies for dealing with these and other biases usually are not addressed in formal coursework. The workshop setting provides a far better setting for discussion of the issues.

Suggested Strategy

By identifying these biases and referring to factual data to combat them objectively, women can develop strategies to deal with them. Men

should define those areas in which their behavior and decisions are sometimes governed by subjective judgments. This workshop can provide information to dispel irrational biases, and can also serve as a forum for discussion.

Change strategies, such as role playing and simulations, can be used as catalysts for stimulating discussion between men and women about male biases in work relationships. Bunker and Seashore (1977, pp.356-370) discuss several role playing scenarios on male-female competition and interaction patterns, including the difficulty that men encounter in listening to women.

Men and Women Managers--A Comparison of Abilities and Characteristics

Background

Abilities of women managers are often underestimated. In the past, there has been little research available that addressed characteristics and abilities of women managers. Most management study samples have drawn almost exclusively on men because, until recently, there have been few women in management positions (Fitzpatrick and Cole, 1977, p.5).

Currently, a considerable amount of comparative research is being done on men and women in management. Researchers are sampling both men and women managers to look for similarities and differences in attitudes, abilities, personality traits, and other characteristics.

Fitzpatrick and Cole recently conducted a study to determine whether there are distinct differences between successful male and female managers. Their sample consisted of eighty-seven managers who work for thirteen different companies in the eastern and midwestern United States. Forty-six were women and forty-one were men. All were considered to be successful in their jobs. They were not randomly selected men and women, but were highly achievement oriented. Most respondents were in their late thirties in age.

Most of the men were married with children. Most of the women were unmarried, and those that were married were more likely to be childless. The men scored higher in quantitative reasoning tests than the women, but the women exceeded the men's scores measuring energy and drive. There were no differences between men and women's scores measuring verbal and critical thinking skills. The men and women scored equally well on leadership ability measurements. Both groups were intelligent and verbally proficient. The men, however, had higher salaries than the women.

The study concludes that successful women managers are very similar in abilities and characteristics to their male counterparts. It suggests that women managers are capable and that other women who possess qualities necessary for success in management should be encouraged to enter the field.

Cole, Peters, and Horgan (1975) report the results of similar tests and interviews in another study of sixty men and sixty women managers. All were given standardized ability tests and in-depth interviews on a variety of topics including values, personal experiences, and others. In addition, the women were screened for biographical information.

The women scored higher than the men on verbal and logical reasoning tests. There was no difference between men and women on mathematical reasoning skills.

The men and women managers shared the same values and interests. The men sought status and prestige in their jobs and were motivated by economic and materialistic values. The women were also motivated by money and material rewards. They rejected service-oriented activities typical to their non-career female counterparts. The women managers enjoyed public contact, especially in situations where they could influence others.

Women managers had the following personality and motivational characteristics: they had productive work habits, were able to meet deadlines, were assertive, strong self-motivators, and willing to take controversial positions. They also enjoyed physical activity, were in excellent health, and had a high degree of emotional independence and objectivity. They tended to be single with no children. Most were high academic achievers and had parents who encouraged and reinforced their ambitions from early childhood.

The women interviewed expressed dissatisfaction about their personal relationships with male coworkers. They also expressed a desire to have concerned and interested supervisors. Many of the women managers attributed their success to supervisors who encouraged them to master new skills in spite of their own personal reservations about accepting new challenges. They also appreciated supervisors who showed confidence in their abilities.

The women offered several suggestions to other women considering entering the management field: learn how to handle subordinates, recognize that political games are sometimes part of getting ahead, and consider whether or not a managerial role is consistent with personal satisfaction goals. A problem for some women managers is that after accepting a management position, they discover they would prefer staff or line responsibilities but find it difficult to make the downward shift.

In another study, Wertheim, Widom, and Wortzel (1978, pp.234-242) compared male and female students on personality, aptitude, achievement, and social variables in four fields: law, management, education, and social work. Their findings show that differences across fields are greater than differences between sexes. No differences were found between male and female assertiveness scores, but management students were found to be the most assertive. They also found that young women are less likely than older women to choose traditional female roles.

McClelland (1967) attempted to synthesize many psychological studies dealing with sex differences. He felt that there is sufficient information available upon which important conclusions can be drawn. He concluded that women are more interdependent and more interested in people than things, and less analytical and manipulative of things than men.

Knowles and Moore's (1970, p.72) review of the research concerned with female biology and socialization factors led them to conclude that the one difference that biologists, psychologists, social psychologists, and sociologists attribute to women is their greater concern for relationships among people. They thought this quality would be a positive contribution to management.

Reif et al. (1975, p.78) make similar recommendations regarding women in management. They assert that organizational decision makers should give equal opportunity to women not because of governmental and other pressures, but because of the knowledge that qualified women would be a valuable resource and an asset to the organization.

Suggested Strategy

Present and discuss the above findings to show that more similarities than differences exist between male and female managers, thus affecting their managerial abilities.

Next, encourage the group to suggest ways to bring more women into management. Schein (1976) asserts that a successful affirmative action program should be based on a structured career pathing approach. This would be done by: (1) examining the job to determine what it requires, (2) determining which women have the potential for holding this job, and (3) giving women specific training in the skills required to do that specific job. Such an approach insures that planned upwardly mobile paths for women exist in organizations.

The Nominal Group Technique: A Method for Decision Making

Background

Delbecq, Van de Ven, and Guftafson (1975) state that the number of group judgments in management planning is increasing. This is happening for several reasons. Customers and consumers, for example, are challenging traditional unilateral decision making by administrators and professionals. Also, managers are finding that the decisions they face often require expertise from a wide range of individuals found both in and outside the organization.

The authors explain that the increase in organizational group decision making has presented management with an "energy crisis" of its own. They found that administrators can spend up to 80 percent of the work day in committee meetings which are often fruitless and exhausting.

Group decision makers face several recurring problems. For example, they often try to find solutions to the problem before it has been defined. Almost every group has one or two members who lack the ability to present their ideas articulately or who talk too much. And some members' ideas are suppressed for a variety of reasons including lack of power or prestige, age, race, or sex. These problems are often very difficult for the group to overcome and they delay the decision making process.

In an attempt to provide organizations with a technique to facilitate group judgments, Delbecq et al. have developed the Nominal Group Technique, or NGT. They explain that it is to be used as a "problem solving or idea generating strategy" (Delbecq et al., 1975, p.4). They caution that it is not a technique for routine meetings or bargaining or negotiating sessions. NGT is most effective for identifying the components of problems, finding alternative solutions to problems, and setting organizational priorities.

The technique is designed to address no more than one question at a time. NGT is used by many management consultants for dealing with and instituting organizational change.

The Nominal Group Technique can be summarized in ten basic steps:

1. Introduction. The moderator (a) presents the problem or question to be dealt with in writing; (b) describes the role of the participants, which is to contribute their suggestions on how to study and/or solve the problem; and (c) divides the larger group into groups of five to eight persons.

2. Silent generation of ideas in writing. Members of the small groups spend ten to fifteen minutes independently writing as many critical items related to the question as possible. Silence is maintained.

3. Round-robin listing of ideas on flip chart. One person in the group is designated the recorder for the group. The recorder asks each participant to contribute one item in round-robin fashion. He or she numerically lists each item on the flip chart, being sure to record the exact words proposed by the group member. No discussion is allowed, but participants are encouraged to add new ideas to their lists as they occur to them. The round-robin listing continues until all items have been presented. Duplicate items should be omitted.

4. Discussion of ideas on flip chart. A thirty-minute discussion of the ideas ensues. Each idea is discussed in the order it appears on the chart. The purpose of the discussion is to clarify, elaborate, dispute, and defend items. Items may be categorized and new items may be added, but none may be eliminated. The moderator should discourage any member who attempts to influence the group with aggressive verbal comments.

5. Break. (fifteen minutes)

6. Ranking priority problem items. The recorder asks the participants to independently choose, rank, and record on file cards the five most important items, identifying them by the numbers on the flip chart.

7. Discussion of vote. Participants defend or dispute the preliminary vote, redefining some problem dimensions.

8. Re-ranking and rating priorities. Participants independently re-choose and re-rank the five items they deem most important.

9. Discussion. If necessary, participants elaborate on items.

10. Conclusion of Nominal Group meeting. All groups meet together and report votes; discussion ensues. The vote decides the issues raised at the meeting. It represents the group decision.

Delbecq et al. believe NGT offers several advantages over conventional decision making techniques. It avoids confrontation and diversion which so often disrupt committee meetings. The silent generation of ideas in writing allows participants to separate ideas from personalities and avoid group pressures of either competition or conformity. NGT also assures the balanced participation of all group members. And, participants often are impressed with the array of ideas a group assembles.

Suggested Strategy

After explaining the Nominal Group Technique, the workshop leader should define a hypothetical problem with which workshop participants can implement the technique. The group will then go through the problem solving process. Upon completion of the ten steps, they will discuss their feelings and observations regarding its use.

Conflict Management

Background

Everyone encounters conflict. Conflict is a dispute or struggle between two parties characterized by intentional interference by one party in the goal attainment of the other. The interference can be either active or passive. Active interference is one party's straightforward denial of the other's request. Passive interference is more subtle. It is achieved, for example, by withholding necessary information from one party by the other.

Conflict can occur whether or not two parties share the same goals. It causes frustration for one or both parties and often results in acts of aggression or uncontrolled expressions of anger.

Wofford, Gerloff, and Cummins (1977, p.232) and DuBrin (1974, p.314) describe two kinds of conflict found in organizations. The first, substantive conflict, occurs when two parties disagree about organizational policies, actions, responsibilities, or roles. Substantive conflict often can be mitigated by negotiation between disagreeing parties.

The second kind of conflict found in organizations is emotional conflict. It occurs when two parties disagree about personal approaches to problem solving and often is attributed to the unique personalities involved. Negotiation between parties, typically, cannot resolve emotional conflict because the disagreements are based on feelings, which are difficult for conflicting parties to discuss.

Wexley and Yukl (1975, p.337) state that the key variable causing conflict in organizations is interdependence between parties or groups in completing a job. Each must assist and share information, initiative, and reward with the other. If there is a breakdown in the sharing

relationship, conflict is the inevitable result.

Wexley and Yukl discuss some secondary matters they feel are related to conflict. Among them is competition for limited resources within the organization. Organizational groups, for example, compete for everything from physical space, staff, and budget to access to advice from top management. Communication problems can be another source of conflict between parties. Sometimes one group will make unreasonable demands on another because it is not aware of the other's needs and constraints. Role dissatisfaction also can cause conflict. This occurs when work responsibilities are not defined adequately. Individuals or groups want a clear sense of who gets the credit and who gets the blame for particular tasks.

DuBrin (1974, p.306) suggests that organizational value differences can cause conflict. Management's chief concern, for example, is often the long term growth and stability of the organization. Managers, therefore, may advocate that profits be reinvested in capital improvements for the overall good of the company. In contrast, labor groups may feel profits should be invested in salary increases for them.

According to DuBrin, differences in goals can also result in conflict. For example, marketing departments may believe that a wide variety of products for customers is their most important goal. Manufacturing departments, however, may want a standardized product to insure production efficiency. Or, marketing departments may want an inexpensive product, easily mass produced, while engineering departments want to design a more expensive product that will last longer.

Hampton, Summer, and Webber (1968, pp.359-364) describe some common situations in organizations that are very likely to cause conflict. One

is changes in status relations where older employees find themselves being supervised by younger employees. This sometimes occurs when specialists are introduced into the organization. Another is unexpected changes in the work situation such as sudden increased in work flow, personnel transfers, or the introduction of new technologies not easily understood by employees. Still another is the lack of social interaction on the job.

Wexley and Yukl assert that unresolved organizational conflict causes decreases in job productivity and performance. DuBrin agrees. He states that if conflict is supressed, it is likely to increase, wasting employees' time and energy. He adds, however, that the "opinion of many behavioral scientists about this topic is that an optimal level of conflict exists for every situation" (DuBrin, 1974, p.311).

Managers play a central role in resolving and overseeing conflict in organizations. They have to seek a balance between creating stress as a motivating force for employees, and finding solutions to conflict that can be caused by too much stress.

DuBrin argues that if managers know how to deal with conflict, it can offer many positive benefits to the organization. Conflict can bring problems out into the open where they can be addressed. It can also increase organizational innovation and motivate opposing parties to perform better (DuBrin, 1974, p.312). DuBrin warns, however, that conflict not managed properly can create too much stress and adversely affect individuals' mental health.

The literature discussing conflict offers some advice to managers attempting organizational conflict resolution. There is general agreement that conflict is handled best by managers who openly confront differences

and worst by those who do not (Wexley and Yukl, 1975, p.345). Unresolved conflict often increases conflict in organizations.

DuBrin, however, cautions managers not to attempt to resolve all conflict situations, particularly emotional conflict between two parties. He believes that emotional, or personal conflict is sometimes impossible to solve and that managers should not risk their credibility by approaching problems where resolution is unlikely. He concludes that generally managers should limit their efforts to solving dysfunctional conflict, or conflict that seriously interferes with the organization's daily operation (DuBrin, 1974, p.314).

Wofford et al. (1977, p.230) state that managers should not resolve conflict by imposing solutions upon problems. Instead, they suggest that managers help disagreeing parties resolve their conflicts through counseling, modeling, persuading, or participative decision making. Disagreeing parties who find their own solutions to problems are more committed to the agreement. They also learn to become more responsible by not relying on the manager to be a referee.

According to Wofford et al., managers can best resolve conflict between two parties by playing the role of third party intervener. When managers become third party interveners, they should follow the procedures described below.

First, the manager should notify the two parties in advance that he wishes to discuss their differences with them. A meeting time and place should be determined. The meeting should be held in neutral territory, that is, someplace other than the offices of the disagreeing parties and perhaps someplace other than the manager's office.

When the meeting begins, the manager should start the discussion by

suggesting a particular issue to explore. The conflicting parties should each be given a turn to describe their viewpoints on the issue. Neither may offer solutions at this stage of the meeting.

Next, the manager should ask the conflicting parties to restate each other's position. This achieves two goals: it assures that they have listened to each other and tends to break down defensive behaviors for both parties.

Now the manager should encourage the two parties to state how their viewpoints are similar. They can then begin to discuss solutions for points on which they still disagree. At this stage, the manager must insure that both parties agree to either honor solutions found or continue negotiating solutions to remaining differences. The manager should also bring both parties together again several times after agreements have been reached to make sure that both parties are satisfied.

Wexley and Yukl suggest several actions organizations could take to reduce potential conflicts. The executive level could direct managers to change the system of rewards so that reward incentives encourage co-operation instead of competition. It also could direct the personnel department to institute a recruitment program that screens out persons likely to cause emotional conflict in the organization.

Suggested Strategy

Managers need a basic understanding of the conflict process. They also need to know how to deal with the different types of conflict. The process of overcoming conflict involves bringing it out into the open, analyzing and evaluating it, and finding solutions for it. Conflict not understood and not acted upon can be a continual emotional drain upon the conflicting parties and a source of inefficiency within organizations.

This workshop should describe the symptoms and causes of conflict and present ways of dealing with them. Participants should enact different types of reactions to conflict. Some of these are: withdrawal, conciliation, persuasion, pressure, bargaining, and integrative problem solving. Third party interventions for resolving conflict such as arbitration, mediation, and development of shared goals should be discussed.

An excellent resource instructors can consult for this workshop is Interpersonal Conflict Resolution by Alan C. Filley (1975).

Change Strategies

Background

What changes are needed within organizations to provide opportunities for women to become leaders? How can women demonstrate their competency, learn to share power, and gain their share of rewards in the organization?

Kanter (1977) provides some provocative proposals. She suggests that organizations should change the sex-ratio in their power structures by adding more women. She asserts that large numbers of women should be included in every working group to help reduce female stereotypes, to change intergroup dynamics, and to allow women to offer support to each other without being a competitive threat to one another.

Kanter also recommends instituting training programs for men to teach them how to treat women subordinates, colleagues, or superiors appropriately. Knowledge about how women prefer to be treated, where female psychology differs from male psychology, the reasons women seek careers, and their norms and expectations would all be useful. Kanter believes that studying these factors could help ease uncertainties and avoid uncomfortable situations or crises between men and women managers.

She concludes that both men and women managers need to understand the problems that confront women entering management positions. Women need help learning the experiences of power, task orientation, and new dimensions of interpersonal behavior. Men need to modify their behaviors toward women by recognizing that women's role in the organization is changing from one of support to one of leadership. Male managers must be made aware that they sometimes reinforce female stereotypes by adopting the protector role toward them. What begins as a helpful gesture can keep women from learning the skills necessary for them to succeed in

management. If women are to be leaders within the organization, they must not be isolated.

Sargent (1977) proposes similar change strategies to help women in management. She suggests developing educational programs for men and women on (1) consciousness-raising, (2) behavior modification, (3) institutional power realities, and (4) how to challenge institutional sexism.

Consciousness-raising programs are designed to encourage participants to broaden their thinking about contemporary allocations of sex role behaviors. Participants are asked to discuss the advantages and disadvantages of these behaviors. Sargent asserts that successful consciousness-raising programs can result in personal liberation and resocialization for participants, but warns that it is a slow, arduous, and time-consuming course.

Successful behavior modification programs teach men and women to express their wants and needs more effectively and thus create opportunities for men and women to establish collaborative relationships. Collaborative relationships can lead to the development of support systems between men and women and sometimes to changes in personal life styles.

Teaching men and women about institutional power realities helps them learn how to facilitate organizational change, influence decision making processes, and have an impact on the system's power structure.

Challenges to institutional sexism will be necessary if collaborative attempts do not achieve changes in the organization. In such cases, Sargent feels that the challengers need to understand how to deal with the realities of power and confrontation.

Suggested Strategy

The on-the-job change strategies proposed by Kanter and Sargent can be presented to provide background material for workshop participants. Members of the group might then be asked to identify a critical and disturbing factor requiring change in their job situation. The participants can form groups to consider one such factor, discuss it, and develop a proposed strategy for handling it.

Workshops for Women Managers Only

Some respondents in the study--especially women--expressed firm opinions that workshops geared to women's problems should be taught only by female faculty members. Some of them were very adamant about it. They believe that only female instructors can provide a supportive climate for discussion of personal problems faced by women during the workday or problems presented by group male behavior. They feel that women would do a better job than men in outlining strategies for dealing with on-the-job issues and offering advice, information, and suggestions for handling women's problems. Hennig and Jardim (1977) propose that corrective action is the responsibility of women themselves, not their employers, bosses, or schools.

Assertiveness Training

Background

Men and women in management must have self-confidence if they are to lead others successfully. They need to be able to impress their wishes, desires, and will on subordinates. This is a challenging role for anyone. It can be especially difficult for women because many women have been brought up to put their needs after those of everyone else. Thus when women begin to put their needs and desires first, they sometimes feel guilt and anxiety.

Adams (1977), for example, states that professional women often are troubled about their image. They want recognition in their fields, but not at the risk of being considered insensitive and unfeminine. Using power and being strong are not actions they think their associates expect them to take.

Among a number of predominant concerns working professional women have, Adams identifies the following:

a shaky but growing self-esteem

coping with independence

amazement about one's emerging competence

how to deal with conflict without being paralyzed

how to establish credibility with colleagues and associates and the public

how to communicate, with both sensitivity and authority

how to handle superiors and subordinates as an adult

learning effective and constructive confrontation skills

setting limits without feeling guilty

handling power without being apologetic

dealing with role conflict and family resentment of success

withdrawal behavior during business meetings because her ideas are not taken seriously by her colleagues

According to Adams, both men and women could benefit from assertiveness training programs and both are requesting assistance in learning assertive behavior.

Adams explains that assertiveness training programs use role playing techniques to teach participants assertive behavior. An important part of the program is to improve communication skills. Participants learn not only how to express themselves, but also how to listen and how to process information. Participants are taught how to accept compliments without feeling anxiety. They are encouraged to express positive feelings about themselves when they have done a good job and to develop greater interpersonal sensitivity.

Assertiveness training programs also create situations in which participants confront conflict. By role playing and instruction, participants learn how to accept differences of opinion and to be more flexible. They are also encouraged to negotiate differences without feeling either victory or defeat.

Role playing is also used as a way to let participants practice handling confrontation. They learn how to ask for changes, express anger, receive anger, and say no.

Adams suggests that assertiveness training is more than acquiring assertive skills. It is learning how to develop existing potentials, recognize and set personal limitations, and express opinions and beliefs even if others disagree. Adams cautions that being assertive does not mean being offensive.

Richardson (1977) refines the concept of assertive behavior by

defining the differences between assertion, aggression, and submission. Assertion is action taken in self-interest that does not violate another's rights. Aggression is exaggerated action taken at the expense of someone else who usually will feel hostile or humiliated as a result. Submission is action withheld at the expense of one's self-interests which are infringed upon by another.

Richardson suggests that assertive behavior is the most effective and rewarding approach to interpersonal communication because it is direct and tries to recognize the rights of each individual. She argues that aggression and submission are not appropriate behaviors because they are indirect and confusing ways of communicating. Furthermore, aggressive and submissive behaviors encourage the build-up of resentments. If these are not alleviated, the submissive person either will explode in a rage and become aggressive, or withhold hostility and plot subversive counterattacks.

An important part of assertiveness training is learning to recognize what constitutes assertive behavior and what does not. Richardson illustrates assertive behavior in an extensive list of examples. She says that assertion is saying "yes" or "no" with conviction, encouraging two-way communication, standing up for personal rights, and respecting other's rights. Assertion is not keeping opinions quiet or hiding feelings, doing all the talking, being excessively self-denying, or winning at another's expense.

Assertiveness training programs are based on the psychological principle that behavior is learned. Because it is learned, it can be changed. Behavior, however, is a phenomenon which interacts with an individual's feelings and self-concept. Consequently, if individuals

learn new forms of behavior, they change not only actions, but also feelings and self-perceptions. Successful assertiveness training programs help individuals learn new behavior, which in turn generates increased self-esteem.

Suggested Strategy

This experimental workshop focuses on assertiveness techniques to aid women in management. By observing demonstrations and participating in simulated assertiveness behaviors, participants should learn to:

distinguish assertive behavior from aggressive and competitive behavior

deal with power, especially in relating to authority figures and supervisors

reconcile new responsibilities and assertive behaviors with femininity

shed behaviors traditionally associated with the stereotyped female (passivity, compliance, and dependency)

improve communication skills by developing listening, processing, and expressive skills

enhance self-confidence through awareness, self-esteem, and interpersonal sensitivity

deal with conflict issues effectively

learn practical confrontation skills

Career Concept Differences Between Men and Women

Background

Between 1973 and 1976 Hennig and Jardim (1977) surveyed 3,000 women and 1,000 male executives located throughout the United States. Their findings identified a number of differences between men and women's career concepts. Men and women have different attitudes about their jobs.

According to Hennig and Jardim, women make commitments to lifetime careers later than men. The women studied decided they wanted permanent careers when they were over thirty years old. Many had worked for the preceding ten years without considering their opportunities for advancement within the organization. Most women recalled their decision to pursue a career passively. They said they neither actively competed for advancement nor attempted to develop management skills such as assertion or self-confidence while they were working. Instead, they often were chosen for advancement by others in the organization.

Hennig and Jardim also found that women perceive a job as a means of survival and direct their efforts and attention to doing it well. Men perceive a job as a task to be completed before moving on to another. They understand the need to do a job well, but they also consider a job in terms of the possibilities it offers for advancement.

In contrast, women think of careers as a means of self-fulfillment and a contribution. Competency in their work is an important personal goal for women. They separate career goals from personal goals. For men, personal goals and career goals are dependent upon each other. Men value competency in their work, but also rank recognition and reward as very important goals.

Women regard the world as it ought to be. Men tend to view it as it is.

Women do not like risk, are threatened by it, and usually reject it because they are afraid to lose. Men consider risk as an opportunity to win or lose. Hence, they are willing to examine the probable costs and benefits risk offers, and accept it if they think it is advantageous. Men are more prepared to accept winning or losing than women.

Women base personal styles and roles on their own self-concept. Men often adopt styles and roles centered on their bosses' expectations. Those men who reject organizational pressures to conform are more likely to be aware of the consequences than are the women who make the same choice.

Women often regard friendship as a prerequisite for a good working relationship on a job. Men approach interaction with people they do not like with more flexibility than women. They do not think friendship is necessary for productive interaction on a job.

Hennig and Jardim believe that some of the differences in career concepts between men and women are the result of their childhood experiences. Young men, for example, grow up prepared to work for the rest of their lives. Women grow up not knowing if they will work or not. Team sports like football and baseball also teach boys at an early age how to cooperate, compete, win, lose, accept criticism, and develop strategies and alternative strategies. Girls do not tend to participate in team sports as frequently, and more often are taught that how the game is played is more important than winning. Team sports teach boys that differences in ability must be tolerated for the team to operate as a whole. Girls are more likely to judge ability on merit alone.

The authors suggest that the skills many young men learn while participating in team sports help them succeed in organizations. The relationship between team sports and organizational success is debatable, of course. However, Hennig and Jardim state that, for whatever reasons, men have a better understanding of the organizational environment than women. They assert that most women just do not seem to realize that advancement in organizations depends upon growth in status and influence as well as the development of individual expertise. Women do not understand that all organizations have informal systems "of relationships and information sharing, ties of loyalty and of dependence, of favors granted and owed, of mutual benefit, of protection . . ." (Hennig and Jardim, 1977, p.12). Because they do not understand it, many refuse to accept the influence of the organization's informal system as part of the process of advancement.

Hennig and Jardim assert that the differences in career concepts between men and women cause them to act differently. Decision makers (often men) in positions to promote women imagine that because women do not act like men they lack motivation, interest in getting ahead, and flexibility. These perceptions can lead to negative decisions regarding promotion and advancement for women. According to Hennig and Jardim, women need to become more aware of the organizational environment if they are serious about achieving professional advancement.

They further suggest that women need to develop careful, detailed plans on how to approach the organizational environment and how to manage their own feelings of anxiety and conflict. In order to make men change, women have to change first.

Suggested Strategy

This workshop should be opened with a presentation of the background material identifying the differences between men and women's career concepts. Discussion can then be stimulated by presenting challenging questions and comments to the participants.

Hennig and Jardim suggest encouraging women to consider whether they are passive participants in the organization. If they are, they should explore the conditions which would enable them to become more active and seek promotion, responsibility, and new skills. They should also explore the costs and benefits of change. Women considering entering management need to ask themselves what they have to gain or lose as a consequence of their choice.

Power, Collusion, Intimacy-Sexuality, and Support

Background

Bunker and Seashore (1977), two professional women trained in human relations behavior, have identified four issues which are major sources of anxiety and confusion for working women. They are: power, collusion, intimacy-sexuality, and support. Bunker and Seashore believe that women at the middle and upper management levels must understand how to handle these four issues.

Some of the respondents interviewed for this study indicated that women sometimes feel guilty about imposing power. They feel that if they do so they will be resented. Others said it is necessary for women to understand that there is nothing magical about exercising authority.

Power

Bunker and Seashore describe two major kinds of power, role power and personal power. Role power, also called legitimate power, is sanctioned by one's position in the organization. Bosses, for example, have power because they are bosses. Role power leads to both "reward" and "coersive" power. Persons possessing role power are able to influence subordinates by either supplying resources if they perform well, or doling punishments if they do not. Exercising role power requires clear decision making, assertiveness, and accountability (Bunker and Seashore, 1977, p.358). These qualities have been associated traditionally with men.

Personal power, or charisma, is tied to a person rather than to a role. It is based on relationships of trust and mutual respect. Individuals possessing personal power are often very perceptive at recognizing and meeting others' needs. They are skilled at presenting a good idea at the right time. Personal power has been associated traditionally with women.

Bunker and Seashore assert that as women move into management they will assume positions of power previously reserved for men. This will affect women, men, and institutions.

Women new to management will need to adopt assertive styles of behavior. Bunker and Seashore explain that men often display assertive behavior by being very competitive. They urge women to reject competitive approaches to problem solving in favor of collaboration. They believe that collaboration and cooperation in the work setting would foster better interpersonal relationships between men and women and also result in increased efficiency for the organization.

The authors also state that men will need to understand that women often have difficulty expressing anger openly. Sometimes women cry when they are angry and frustrated. If this happens, men should not retreat. They should not conclude that the women are hurt and leave them alone. Instead, men should encourage women to explain why they are upset and try to help them find solutions to their problems.

Collusion

Bunker and Seashore define collusion as acting to fulfill others' expectations rather than one's own wishes or desires. They suggest that this is a special problem for women. Many women act before considering whether or not it is something they want to do. Later they realize that they acted as they did because they felt it was expected of them in their roles as women.

The authors also explain that seduction, or "the use of ritualized sexual behaviors to get what you want, can be a special case of collusion" (Bunker and Seashore, 1977, p.364). To illustrate, they describe a scenario where a secretary charms her male boss into giving her the day off. If he

agrees because she is attractive when he knows he will need her to work, he has acted collusively.

Seashore and Bunker caution that when individuals decide to break old collusions, they create anxiety for others. Men particularly may interpret a woman's decision to act for herself as an affront against them. Bunker and Seashore suggest that individuals who reject collusive behavior patterns should discuss their intentions and rationale with others. This would insure that their behavior changes would not be regarded as a challenge or an insult.

The authors conclude that individuals trying to rid themselves of collusive behaviors must recognize that becoming aware of one's personal needs and desires does not mean they should be achieved at any cost. A balanced approach to change should be taken. Such individuals should approach change knowing that consciously putting some wants aside for others can often increase a positive sense of self-identity.

Intimacy-Sexuality

Intimacy and sexuality are closely linked issues which bear on personal relationships between men and women at work. Bunker and Seashore suggest that intimacy and sexuality sometimes present problems for men and women because friendship means different things to them. Women, for example, seldom refer to anyone as a close friend unless they know that person's thoughts and feelings quite intimately.

For many men, however, friendship means simply sharing sports or recreational activities with others. Often men do not know or want to know very much about their friends' thinking on a personal level. Male friendships frequently do not involve self-disclosure or mutual personal exploration. For some if not many, men, or girlfriends are the only

persons in their lives with whom self-revelation occurs. Men often link personal closeness with physical intimacy. Women do not. Many women believe they can have close friendships with men without feeling that sex is a necessary part of the relationship.

Women entering the work world should recognize, however, that some men regard their presence as an opportunity for personal relationships which may involve sexual closeness. Bunker and Seashore (1977, p.365) state that "When there are only a few women in an organization, and they are in lower status positions, it is not uncommon to find that in some parts of the organization sex is the currency which is exchanged for advancement."

Hennig and Jardim (1977, pp.173-174) feel that such explicit sexual tests are difficult for women to deal with. They suggest that women react to an initial sexual advance by ignoring it. They should act preoccupied with the job at hand. If the man persists, they recommend keeping a detailed log describing "what is said, when, where, under what circumstances" (Hennig and Jardim, 1977, p.173). Other people should be informed of the situation. Next, a statement should be written describing the situation and a formal request initiated to enter it in the personnel files. Hennig and Jardim are optimistic that such procedures will lead to the solution of the problem within the organization. If not, however, they assure women that their alternatives are not limited to either giving in or leaving their job. They assert that, if necessary, successful precedents are set for taking the issue to court.

Support

Bunker and Seashore assert that women must support each other both inside and outside of the organization if they are to realize their full

potential in society.

As more women move into management positions in the organization, they should develop support groups. Clearly, women moving through the organizational hierarchy will have similar experiences. For example, they all have to learn how to get along in predominantly male staff meetings. Women who have learned this and other skills already can provide invaluable advice to the younger women moving up. Men long have benefited from male mentors; women must learn to do the same.

Women also need to reinforce each other within the organizational environment. If, for example, one woman's comments are ignored by her male counterparts, another woman should redirect the conversation so that the first woman's ideas are heard.

The authors encourage women to support each other as human beings. Bunker and Seashore acknowledge that some female subordinates resent having a woman for a boss. They resent typing or making travel arrangements for women supervisors, feeling that they should do such tasks themselves. The authors feel such attitudes are self-defeating and suggest that women learn to treat each other with mutual respect, regardless of their status within the organization.

Bunker and Seashore assert that the wives of male executives have an important role to play in supporting their husbands' female counterparts. They argue that women should not compete with each other in their roles as wives and professional women. Rather, they too should support each other as human beings.

Suggested Strategy

According to Bunker and Seashore, the issues of power, collusion, intimacy-sexuality, and support can be addressed in a two-day workshop.

Participants should consider the following questions in their discussions:

(1) As women entering management assume positions of influence previously reserved for men, what will be the effects on men, women, and institutions?

(2) How do we become conscious of and begin to change the effects of sex-role socialization?

(3) How do the personal relationships of men and women affect the work setting?

(4) How can women help each other solve personal or social problems confronted in the work setting and how can they learn to support each other on the common issues they share as human beings (Bunker and Seashore, 1977, p.357)?

The workshops should provide an opportunity for women to share common dilemmas and experiences. As women move into new roles they experience anxiety, anger, confusion, curiosity, delight, and liberation. Open discussion of these experiences can help women understand the sources and manifestations of their feelings. The insights they gain should help lead them toward more positive career experiences.

Career Planning and Professionalism

Background

Sound career planning for women is essential if they are to succeed in organizations. Respondents in this study frequently mentioned career planning as a necessity for women, especially for those desiring to enter or move up in management. They stressed the importance of women accumulating skills toward a career goal.

Hennig and Jardim (1977, p.40), however, found that most women give little thought to career planning. Instead, they concentrate on developing technical and specialized skills and are often unaware that management responsibilities require completely different kinds of expertise.

Some of the women interviewed by Hennig and Jardim had ambitions to advance in the organization but did not know how to go about it. They discussed their goals in terms of a specific desired job or salary level that was attractive to them. None had broadly defined goals. When asked what would be critical in achieving their goals, women listed things they believed they could control. They frequently mentioned hard work, further training, and developing self-improvement skills such as self-confidence. Only a few mentioned the importance of selecting a qualified person to take over their job as they moved up in the organization. Not one woman interviewed mentioned office politics or the need for visibility as factors that could help them advance (Hennig and Jardim, 1977, p.7).

La Roche and Scott (1977) found similar patterns in their study on women's attitudes about professionalism. They found that women tend to be informed inadequately about what constitutes professionalism in organizations. According to La Roche and Scott, women believe they are being professional when they are technically competent, know their work, and do

it well. As professionals, they do not waste time and they motivate their subordinates to work hard. Women think they are professional when they contribute ideas that help them do their jobs better and separate family responsibilities from work responsibilities.

La Roche and Scott, however, assert that professionalism is more than being competent and committed to the job. It is also the ability to look beyond the job to see how it contributes to the overall efficiency of the organization. Professionalism is combining an individual's skills with long-range organizational goals.

A number of female management consultants stress the necessity for women to know the differences between what they and others consider professionalism to be. Women interested in career advancement must have more accurate ideas about how to act professionally.

La Roche and Scott offer some suggestions regarding a number of attributes they believe mark the professional. Professionals take responsibility for their own creative efforts. They do not present their ideas casually; they review and refine proposals until they are prepared to offer them as personal recommendations. Professionals are not sidetracked by peripheral issues that are unimportant to their long-range goals. They also know their strengths and weaknesses.

Hennig and Jardim (1977, pp.157-186) outline several steps for women to follow when they begin to develop career plans. They suggest concentrating on three general themes: goal setting, planning, and problem solving.

Hennig and Jardim suggest that before a woman can set realistic goals for her future she needs to ask herself if she plans to work for most of her life, even if she marries and has children. If she decides that she does, she needs to ask herself what she wants from her career and where

she hopes to be five, ten, or even twenty years in the future. Will she discuss her goals with her family? Will she ask for their help? Can she accept that trying to separate her career life from her personal life is conflict-laden and time-consuming?

To plan adequately, a woman needs to assess both the skills she has and the skills she will need to achieve her goals. What skills has she gained from other jobs? She should list these. She should list the names of people she knows who might be able to guide and help her.

Finally, she should recognize that handling feelings of anxiety and conflict experienced on the job is sometimes a problem. Under what circumstances has she been reduced to tears? Is it when she is criticized, challenged, or left out? She should write her recollections down and look for patterns that cause emotional responses. This could help her anticipate and avoid these situations. If not, she should excuse herself to cry privately. And how does she feel about risk? Or how would she deal with a sexual approach from a man who held an important and influential position in the organization? Hennig and Jardim encourage women to anticipate problem situations and develop strategies to deal with them before they occur.

Suggested Strategy

A career planning workshop should help women to accomplish the following objectives:

identify the kind of position each would like to achieve

clarify the characteristics of their future career and life style

identify values related to career planning and choice

identify personal and social factors in making career decisions

assess strengths, skills, interests, potentials, areas of competence as well as limitations

develop understanding of organizational environments

develop professional attitudes toward work and career

Career workshops should also help women learn to cope with situations they confront in their careers:

conflict between career and marriage

moving from narrow specialty to broader operations

moving from one job to another

advancing in the organizational hierarchy

Finally, career workshops can teach participants how to:

develop strategies to find jobs

develop skillful interviewing styles

prepare resumes

A review of some of the data cited here, coupled with structured discussion, should enable workshop participants to accomplish these goals. Instructors for this workshop may find it helpful to conduct some of the discussions within the framework of guidelines developed by the Penn State Career Development and Placement Center. The following four-step process is used in its career development courses:

(1) Exploration

gathering data about self

identifying alternatives

(2) Crystallization

evaluating information about self and careers

ranking alternatives

(3) Specification

selecting the most plausible alternative

determining a plan of action

(4) Implementation

carrying out the plan

evaluating outcome

Communication Skills

Background

Oral and written communication skills were cited by the persons interviewed for as being indispensable for women in management. Women must learn how to communicate orally. They need to be able to gain the attention of listeners, make presentations, and express ideas clearly and persuasively if they are to establish credibility. They also need to develop skills that help them to defend a point of view, make a convicing rebuttal, lead a group to consensus, and listen to others before speaking.

In a study conducted by Dubin, Marlow, and Alderman (1967), top managers, middle managers, and first line supervisors rated courses in communication as "most urgently" needed by themselves. Similarly, a recent study of the Stanford University Graduate School of Business alumni reported that managers identified oral communication abilities as a very important ingredient for success in management.

In an effort to respond to the need for more emphasis on communication skills, the graduate program in business administration at The Pennsylvania State University recently instituted a special oral and written English program for its students. It utilizes a team of faculty members and consultants from the business world to teach students how to communicate effectively. Students are given the opportunity to perform before live audiences and TV cameras. The program, however, is designed so that case materials from basic courses in accounting, quantitative business analysis, and organizational behavior are integrated carefully into the curriculum.

Suggested Strategy

Established techniques may be used to develop a workshop in listening sensitivity and oral and written skills. The workshop can present methods

of conducting a meeting by parliamentary procedures. A major portion of the workshop also can provide practice sessions in speaking effectively by knowing the audience, emphasizing what is to be said, and knowing how to say it. Practice sessions in delivering a report, chairing a session, and making a brief presentation should be provided. The instructor and other participants should provide critique and feedback.

APPENDIX A

Courses Recommended by Respondents for Three Management Levels of Women

Tables 1, 2, and 3 identify topics for courses proposed by respondents for three levels of management--executive secretaries, supervisors and women new to management, and women in middle management. Table 1 lists the topics by management functions, Table 2 lists the topics under behavioral and leadership skills, and Table 3 lists technical skills. The topics are not necessarily exhaustive. They summarize the respondents' proposals. Items were grouped by the author. The tables provide a source of topics for constructing programs that combine ways to improve managerial, behavioral, and technical competencies.

TABLE 1

Courses for Different Levels of Management

Management Functions

Management Functions	Frequency of Mention	Groups Expressing Interest		
		Executive Secretary	Supervisor	Middle Management
Basic Management Functions	xx	+	+	
Career Planning and Personal Growth	xx	+	+	
Decision Making and Problem Solving Skills	x	+	+	
Learning Corporate Styles, Goals and Expectations		+	+	
Effective Time Management	x	+	+	
Skills in Running A Meeting			+	+
Effective Delegation Skills	x		+	+
Financial Management			+	+
Marketing				+
Management by Objective (MBO)			+	+
Organizational Development (OD)	x			+
Project Management				+
Organizational Systems	x			+
Communication Patterns in Organization			+	+
Dealing with Power and Authority				+
Management and the Future				+

x = Mentioned Frequently

xx = Mentioned Very Frequently

TABLE 2

Courses for Different Levels of Management

Behavioral and Leadership Skills

Behavioral and Leadership Skills	Frequency of Mention	Groups Expressing Interest		
		Executive Secretary	Supervisor	Middle Management
Basic Concepts of Motivation	xx		+	+
Leadership Skills for Effective Supervision	xx		+	+
Training, Coaching, and Developing Employees	xx		+	+
Assertiveness Training	xx		+	+
Human Relations Aspects of Management	x	+	+	+
Effective Interpersonal Skills	xx	+	+	+
Effective Personal Communication Skills Listening Skills Making a Presentation at a Meeting Developing Persuasion Skills How to Get Ideas Across Gaining and Maintaining Attention	xx	+	+	+
Effective Interviewing Skills			+	+
Improving Performance Appraisal Skills			+	+
Effective Team Building				+
Understanding Change Process			+	+
Dealing with Tension, Stress, & Pressure		+	+	+
Emotionalism and How to Deal With It			+	+
Conflict Management	x		+	+
Confrontation and Goal Setting	x			+
Handling Complaints & Grievances			+	+
Group Decision Making			+	+
Transactional Analysis				+

x = Mentioned Frequently

xx = Mentioned Very Frequently

TABLE 3

Courses for Different Levels of Management

Technical Skills

Technical Skills	Frequency of Mention	Groups Expressing Interest		
		Executive Secretary	Supervisor	Middle Management
Written Communication Skills	xx			
Business Letter Writing		+	+	+
Report Writing			+	+
Computer Technology and Data Processing	x		+	+
How to Read a Printout for Cost and Expenses	x	+	+	+
Modern Accounting Systems	x			
Finance and Financial Analysis	x			
How to Read a Financial Report		+	+	
How to Analyze Charts, Figures, Trends		+	+	
Money and Cost Flow Management			+	+
Financial Statistics			+	
Improving Cost Reduction & Control for Cost Reduction			+	+
Budgets and Control			+	+
Scheduling			+	
Business Law		+	+	
How to Use a Calculator		+	+	
Speed Reading		+	+	
Effective Telephone Manner		+	+	
Finance for Non-Financial Persons			+	
Resume Writing		+	+	

x = Mentioned Frequently

xx = Mentioned Very Frequently

APPENDIX B

Management Workshops for Four Levels of Women in Management

Tables 4, 5, 6, and 7 present workshop programs for women employed in organizations at four levels. Each proposed program has a set of objectives and a suggested program content. Table 4 deals with Management Education for Secretaries; Table 5, Management Education for Executive Secretaries and Administrative Assistants; Table 6, Management Skills for First Line Supervisors or Women New to Management; and Table 7, Management Skills for Women in Middle Management. Content for each level was proposed in part by respondents.

TABLE 4

Management Education for Secretaries

I. Objectives
   A. To examine the secretary's role and responsibilities
   B. To examine ways in which the secretary becomes a part of the management team
   C. To improve skills in communication, time management, problem solving, decision making, and interpersonal behavior
   D. To encourage the development of personal goals for future growth

II. Program Content
   A. Improved understanding of job responsibilities and performance requirements
      1. Demands of the job
      2. Determining priorities
      3. Clarifying the work role
   B. Effective communication skills
      1. Listening skills
      2. Non-verbal communication
      3. The secretary as a communicator
   C. Interpersonal skills
      1. Learning to conduct oneself more effectively
      2. Interacting with supervisors and co-workers
      3. Learning self-assertive techniques
   D. Effective scheduling procedures and work simplification
   E. Time utilization and management
      1. Handling stress situations and everyday problems
      2. Problem solving methods
   F. Personal development
      1. Short- and long-range goals
      2. Making a development plan
      3. The changing role of the secretary
      4. Tomorrow's expectations

TABLE 5

Management Education for Executive Secretaries and Administrative Assistants

I. Objectives
- A. To prepare to function as part of a management team
- B. To provide basic understanding of management functions and responsibilities
- C. To improve decision making capability
- D. To improve communication skills
- E. To identify strengths and weaknesses
- F. To increase self-confidence and willingness to take responsibility

II. Program Content
- A. Basic management functions
  1. Learning to plan, organize, direct, control, and motivate
  2. Applying management functions to improve efficiency and effectiveness
  3. One's role as a member of the management team
- B. Effective communication techniques
  1. Principles of effective listening
  2. Conditions which block communications
  3. Non-verbal communications
  4. Being an effective communicator
  5. Interviewing skills
- C. Effective decision making and problem solving techniques
  1. Steps in the decision making processes
  2. Problem solving in group situations
  3. Methods for arriving at consensus
- D. Improved time management
  1. Planning work
  2. Establishing priorities
  3. Working under time pressure
- E. Effective interpersonal skills
  1. Using current approaches to motivation to gain an understanding of oneself and others
  2. Improving action skills in working with people
  3. Processes that inhibit or facilitate group activity
  4. Developing diagnostic skills for use in social, interpersonal, and intergroup situations
  5. Developing motivational skills
- F. Career development and professional growth
  1. Increasing competence
  2. Assuming added responsibilities
  3. Broadening the scope of a job
  4. Increasing the worth of a job
  5. Learning one's strengths and weaknesses
- G. The changing role of the executive secretary
  1. The change process
  2. Being prepared for tomorrow's expectations

TABLE 6

Management Skills for First Line Supervisors

or Women New to Management

I. Objectives
   - A. Developing job roles and skills needed to handle supervision successfully
   - B. Understanding managements' expectations
   - C. Understanding the expectations of people below the supervisory level
   - D. Growing in the job now and in the future

II. Program Content
   - A. The expanding role of women in management
     1. Trends in the growth of women in management
     2. Changing role of women today
     3. Impact of women in the labor force
     4. Effects of affirmative action
   - B. Basic management skills for supervisors
     1. Learning to plan, organize, direct, delegate, and control
     2. Developing a supervisory style
     3. Problems unique to women supervisors
     4. Expectations of management
     5. Meaning of professionalism
   - C. Effective communication skills
     1. Effective listening
     2. Being an effective communicator
     3. Interviewing skills
     4. Oral communication skills
     5. Written communications
     6. Conditions which block communication
   - D. Interpersonal skills
     1. Using motivational approaches to gain an understanding of oneself and others
     2. Improving action skills in working with people
     3. Developing diagnostic skills for social and intergroup situations
   - E. Motivational techniques for improving worker productivity
   - F. Decision making skills
     1. Steps in the decision making process
     2. Simulation exercises to provide feedback to improve decision making skills
   - G. Skills in appraising employees
     1. Practice sessions in appraisal interviews
     2. Methods of dealing with complaints and criticisms
   - H. Introducing change
     1. Understanding the change process
     2. Working with people in organizations undergoing change
     3. Overcoming resistance to change
     4. How people react to change

TABLE 6 (continued)

I. Professional growth
   1. Keeping up-to-date
   2. Improving competence and broadening the scope of a job
   3. Job satisfaction and professionalism

J. Assertiveness training for the woman supervisor
   1. Defining aggressive, non-aggressive, and assertive behavior
   2. Practice sessions in assertive behavior and behaving assertively

K. Developing skills in handling confrontation and conflict
   1. Six types of reactions to third party interventions for resolving conflicts
   2. Developing skills for dealing with confrontation

TABLE 7

Management Skills for Women in Middle Management

I. Objectives
   A. To refine and sharpen management skills and concepts
   B. To aid in career growth of women in middle management
   C. To deal with critical issues of power, collusion, intimacy-sexuality, and support
   D. To provide an opportunity for open discussion of issues with peers
   E. To assist women in analyzing their capabilities, identifying needed skills, and setting professional and personal goals

II. Program Content
   A. The woman as an effective manager
      1. Myths held by male managers
      2. Growth trends of women in management
      3. Impact of affirmative action
      4. Changing role of women in management
      5. The meaning of professional behavior
   B. Four issues relating directly to women managers
      1. Power
      2. Collusion
      3. Intimacy-sexuality
      4. Support
   C. Assertiveness training
      1. Distinguishing between aggression and assertion
      2. Components of assertive behavior
      3. Practice in assertiveness training
   D. Effective personal communication skills
      1. Speaking effectively: knowing what to say and how to say it
      2. Listening skills
      3. Writing skills
      4. Attitudinal barriers
   E. Motivation and achievement
      1. Applying the expectancy theory of motivation to practical situations
      2. Patterns of achievement in women
      3. Socialization process in women
   F. Dealing with conflict and confrontation
      1. Five modes of dealing with conflict
      2. Confrontation and goal setting
   G. Building effective teams: procedures for identifying interpersonal differences, barriers, and common goals
   H. Effective delegation
      1. Principles of delegation
      2. Delegation by objective
      3. Determining your authority
      4. Establishing reporting system
      5. Monitoring delegation

TABLE 7 (continued)

I. Evaluating and appraising performance
   1. Improving the appraisal process
   2. How to coach
J. Strategies for career advancement
   1. Goal setting
   2. Increasing commitment
K. Time management: skill or art?
   1. Establishing a time management procedure
   2. Setting priorities

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